

Dynamic visualization of high-dimensional data via low-dimension projections and sectioning across 2D and 3D display devices

Mid candidature review

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1 Introduction

1.1 Exploration of tabular data

The term exploratory data analysis was coined by Tukey (1977), who leaves it as an intentionally broad term that encompasses the initial summarization and visualization of a data set. This is a critical first step of checking for realistic values and validating model assumptions. It may be tempting to review a series of summary statistics to check model assumptions. However, there are known datasets where the same summary statistics miss glaringly obvious visual patterns (Anscombe 1973; Matejka and Fitzmaurice 2017). It is strikingly simple to look at the wrong, or incomplete set of statistics needed to validate assumptions. Data visualization is fast, versatile, and robust relative to the alternative of numeric statistical summarization. Data visualization does and must remain a primary component of data analysis and model validation.

The mediums and quantities of data are ever-increasing. Modern computing and network systems have made the collection and aggregation of data commonplace. Munzner (2014) distinguishes between 3 base dataset types: tables, networks, and spatial. At the onset, this seems like a gross oversimplification. Yet, seemingly distant mediums - books, schedules, movies, and metadata - can all be decomposed or deconstructed into these 3 classes. The exact variables (or attributes), or features being captured may change, but the base relationship structure boils down to these. Tables are the most commonly consumed dataset and regularly contain many more than a few variables. For the remainder of the discussion let's consider tabular data containing more than 3 variables ($p > 2$). Munzner notes that "geometry is a design decision", where geometry refers to the shape used to depict a quantity (for example bar, line, and contour). Possible geometries are decided by the number and types of values measured, as a baseline we will stick to the application of scatterplots.

1.2 Extending dimensionality

Consider plotting 2 variables as an XY scatterplot. To add a 3rd variable append the z-axis orthogonal (right angle to) the XY plane. Adding a 4th dimension is not so easily solved. To resolve this we will use scatterplot matrices to introduce axes and bases. Then we generalise to linear projections before discussing principal component analysis and introducing tours.

Scatterplot matrices (Chambers et al. 1983) plot every combination of variable pairs and views them in a

➔ Dataset Types

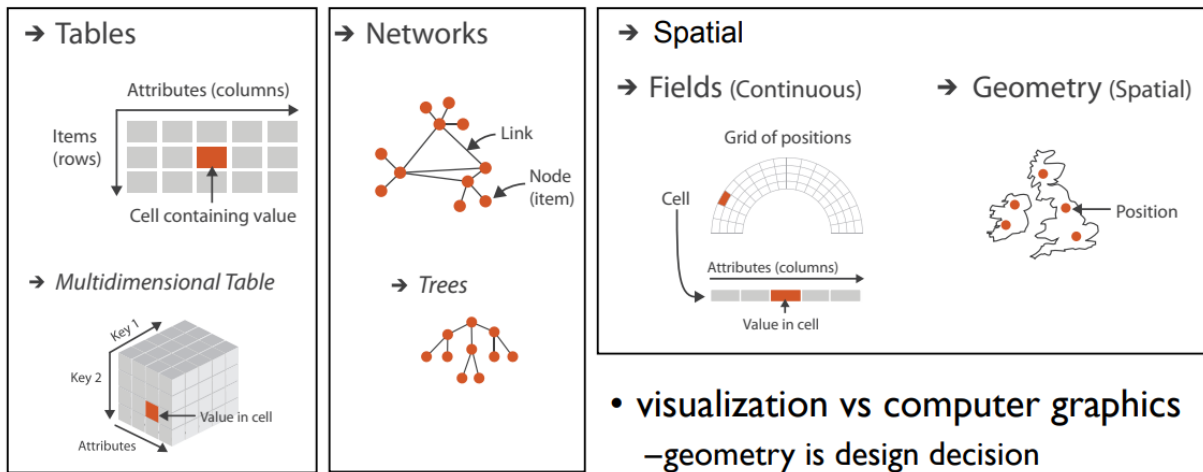


Figure 1: Dataset types, (Munzner 2014)

matrix. This is a good method to check variable ranges and extreme values but is not the ideal visualization. Consider a bar stool as in figure ???. Given 3 still frames of the variable-pair (that is, a square-on view from each dimension) does not necessarily convey the full information of the data. For instance, a three-quarter perspective helps relate the square on images and are ubiquitous in assembly and machining instructions. This perspective relates information contained in the view of sides. Mathematically, we describe the angle of view as a **basis**. Bases (plural of basis) are depicted as unit axes, they point in the direction each dimension is oriented. The axes for the three-quarter perspective differ from the square-on views in that the directions are a combination of 2 and 3 variables respectively, rather than one variable mapped fully to the horizontal or vertical.

Building on pairs of variables, an arbitrary p variables can be projected down to 2 dimensions. This seems unintuitive at first, but we have already discussed a number of trivial cases with scatterplot matrices. Consider figure ?? again. The first 3 cases plot pairs variables, while the third direction extends directly beyond the XY plane. These are trivial projections of 3- down to 2- dimensions, where the 3rd variable has no contribution with a row of zeros in the basis. The three-quarter perspective is more interesting as more than one variable contributes to each direction. The resulting plot is said to be a ‘linear projection’ when the basis is produced with an affine transformation, that is, any transformation in which all parallel lines remain parallel. One crucial aspect of linear projections is that they are interoperable back to the original attributes; any observation identified in any linear projection can be mapped back to its variable values. Recently, some non-linear projection techniques such as self-organizing maps (Kohonen 1990) and t-distributed stochastic neighbor embedding (Maaten and Hinton 2008) have recieved substaintial following. However,

due to their non-linear transformation observations cannot be mapped back to the original attribute-space and interpretation becomes opaque. For this reason we will not compare non-linear transformations for exploration of data- or parameter-spaces.

Principal component analysis (PCA; Pearson 1901) is one common way of identifying projections to consider. In PCA the new components are formed from a linear combination of the original attributes. The new components must be orthogonal to all previous components and ordered by descending variation explained. A pair of these new components are then viewed as an XY scatterplot. This has the added benefit of viewing the most variation in as few dimensions as possible. The scree plot/test (Cattell 1966) can be used on the components to quickly zero in on a space that has the intrinsic dimensionality of the data. This is a common data processing step once the number of attributes becomes sizable (larger than 10 or so).

1.3 From discrete to continuous

The above methods have suggested a *discrete* number of linear projections to look at. At the same time the stool example illustrates that looking at intermediate views improves understanding. A *continuous* animation of the object being rotated would improve this understanding even further. This is analagous to the idea of a data visualization ‘tour’(Asimov 1985, @buja_grand_1986). A tour produces a relatively high number of linear projections and views them in quick succession, typically as an animation. When the bases have a relatively small change in the contributions the projections are much closer. Single points and features can be tracked and follow from projection to projection allowing for a better understanding for the local structure.

One key feature about tours is the selection of the path animated. Asimov originally purposed a ‘grand’ tour. In the grand tour, several target planes are identified somewhat close to the starting basis. Many interim planes are found between target planes via geodisic interpolation. Figure 2 illustrates a simplification of this process. A ‘little’ tour (Wickham et al. 2011) starts on a basis with only 2 variables contributing and trades the contribution one variable for another single variable. This effectively animates between the planes displayed in a scatterplot matrix. A *local* tour explores a dense area of the possible projections around the initial basis. It walks a short distance away before returning to the starting basis and selecting a new random frame very near by.

The *guided* tour (Cook, Buja, and Cabrera 1993) makes use of projection pursuit (Kruskal 1969, 1972) to identify a path. Here a selected index function is selected. Starting from the initial basis a number of nearby bases are checked to see if they perform better on the index function. If so, this new basis is moved and nearby bases are checked again in an iterative process. If the closest bases do not perform better, bases

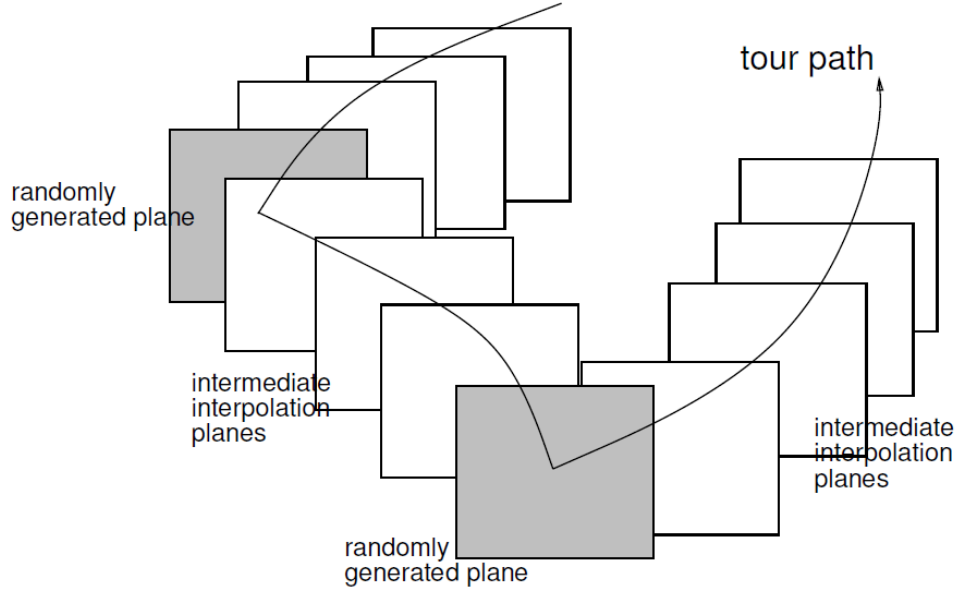


Figure 2: Simplified illustration of a grand tour target and interim frames (Buja et al. 2005)

slightly further away are checked as in simulated annealing (Kirkpatrick, Gelatt, and Vecchi 1983). If no better basis is identified within the selected stopping criterium, the algorithm stops.

The discrete methods above identify bases that highlight some feature. The above tours can help understand the structure leading to and from certain projections. In order to explore higher dimensional spaces visually we need *human-in-the-loop* (Karwowski 2006) tools. We need to be able to choose and direct the change in a basis. (1997) introduces the idea of the ‘manual’ tour. In a manual tour an individual variable is selected as the manipulation variable. Its contribution to the basis is then controlled. The contributions of the remaining variables also change as they perform an orthogonally-constrained rotation. Figure 3 This allows for the exploration of a given projection as defined by the user.

In the [following section](#) we discuss research objectives, motivation and methodology and summarize the research completed. The [third section](#) covers the proposed thesis structure and schedule, and coursework.

2 Research

2.1 Research objectives

Data and models are typically high-dimensional, with many variables and parameters. Developing new methods to visualize high dimensions has been a pursuit of statisticians, computer scientists and visualization

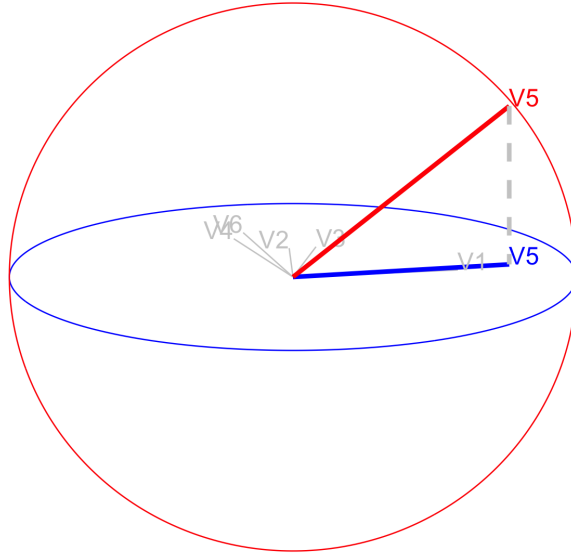


Figure 3: Manipulation space of a manual tour. Variable 5 is being manipulated as though the red segment is rotated about the origin changing the contribution of all variables on the basis axes on the blue projection plane.

researchers for decades. As technology evolves examining, extending, and assessing current techniques, in new environments, for new data challenges, is an important endeavor. The primary objectives of this Ph.D. research can then be summarized as the following.

1. **How can UCS be generalized to work within graphic-specific environments for 2D projections?**

Building from the UCS algorithm in Cook and Buja (1997), the algorithm should be modified for generalized use with graphic-specific environments. This enables fine control to explore the sensitivity of structure to the variable contributing to the projection and sets the foundation to be used in the remaining objectives.

2. **Does 2D UCS tours provide benefits over alternatives?**

The quality and effectiveness of 2D UCS will be compared with alternatives of static, single, linear and non-linear projection techniques. They will be quantified by the measurement of structure, variation, and clustering across on benchmark datasets.

3. **How can UCS be extended to 3D?**

The addition of a 3rd dimension potentially allows for the improved perception of the structure of the data in dynamic UCS. To investigate this UCS algorithm needs to be extended to a third dimension.

This would also allow for novel application multi-parameter function projection. This will involve the addition of a new angle and its controls to the projection space, reference axes, and manipulation space. In particular, the manipulation space, now in 4D, will be hard to visualize, but it should be able to stand as a mathematical construct facilitated through interaction with a point (the projection coefficients of the selected manipulation variable) on the now 3D reference axes volume.

2.2 Motivation

2.3 Methodology

This research is interdisciplinary; it stems from a linear dimension reduction technique developed by statisticians and extended with information technology into 3D including VR technologies, with applications in high energy physics identified (Cook, Laa, and Valencia 2018). Experts in these fields correspondingly supervise the research.

The research corresponding with RO #1 entails a work in progress **algorithm design** following the work in Cook and Buja (1997). The proposed algorithm discusses the generalized application of UCS for use across animation-specific frameworks. The outcome of this is an *R* package, **spinifex**, which will be submitted to CRAN and for hosting and distribution. This forms the foundation for future work in the remaining objectives.

The second objective is addressed with a benchmark dataset **performance comparison** between dynamic linear projections and alternatives (static linear and static non-linear projections such as principal component analysis, multi-dimensional scaling, and t-distributed neighbor embeddings, described in more detail in chapter ??). Benchmark datasets will be compared across techniques, measurements will include variation explained, transparency to the original variable space, clustering identification, and outlier identification.

The research for RO #3 involves **algorithm design**, where the work in RO #1 will be extended to display with the use of a third spatial dimension. This will also be used to develop visualization of projected multi-dimension function surfaces. This forms the calculation base for the work. Several difficulties may arise when bringing dynamic projection into 3D spaces, especially when exploring 3D surfaces (discussed in more detail in chapter ??).

The research resulting from RO #4 is a controlled **usability study** to explore the efficacy of bringing UCS into 3D as compared across various display devices, in a standardized interface allowed by the work stemming from RO # 3. In this design, the factors are user tasks (such as separation of clusters and

ranking of manipulation variable) across the treatment of display device (including 2D standard monitor, 3D head-tracked monitor, and head-mounted display). Quantitative measurements include participant speed and accuracy of tasks, biometric readings, and subjective Likert surveys of participants. A lineup-type model as outlined in Hofmann et al. (2012) may also be employed for assessing the quality of display types.

2.4 Summary of research

2.4.1 Spinifex app

2.4.2 Multivariate linear projection study

3 Thesis proposal

3.1 Structure

3.2 Timeline

3.3 Program requirements

- WES Academic record
 - FIT5144: 2019 S1+2, **In progress**, extended to pre-submission seminar with unit coordinator for the usual 2 opportunities to complete.
 - * Hours: 147 > 120 hours **Tracked**, following required (12 hr total)
 - * *Needed*: CYR 2 (A & B) – 2x 3hr
 - * *Needed*: Faculty of IT Workshop 1 and 3 on Ethical Research and Publishing – 2x 3hr
 - FIT5113: 2018 S2, **Exemption**
 - FIT6021: 2018 S2, **Completed** with distinction
- myDevelopment - IT: Monash Doctoral Program - Compulsory Module
 - Monash graduate research student induction: **Completed**
 - Research Integrity - Choose the Option most relevant: **Completed**
 - Faculty Induction: **Completed**

4 Publications

4.1 spinifex package (R Journal)

4.2 Multivariate linear projection study (IEEE VAST)

4.3 Aim 3

5 Acknowledgements

This report was created in R [r_core_team_r: 2019], using `bookdown` (Xie 2016) and `rmarkdown` (Xie, Allaire, and Golemund 2018).

For the purposes of version control, transparency, and reproducibility, the source files are made available found at github.com/nspyrison/mid_canidature.

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